

This is the first draft of this talk. The original idea was to do "Local Reasoning in Any Language" to document how I think about code, regardless of the language I'm programming in. The talk gets mired in the C++ details, so doing a set of languages seemed too much. Except for the details, the rules in this talk apply to all languages. I present here how I map these ideas into C++; it isn't the only mapping for C++, and if you program in a different language, figure out a set of conventions to map the ideas into that language.





I'll sometime use _caller_ and _callee_ when discussing functions, but client and implementor generalize to classes.



Let's start with a simple function signature. <click>

Either this function does nothing, or whatever it does is entirely through side effects. Either way, we should document it. <click> Now we can implement `f` <click>



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I hope everyone is convinced that `f()` is implemented correctly. A requirement for local reasoning is a specification, a contract.

Suppose a piece of code has a contract, and everything it invokes also has one. In that case, we can read the implementation and prove (or disprove) that the function body is correct and fulfills the contract. But this isn't another talk about contracts; instead, it is about general principles for constructing code that is _simple_ to reason about and that we can prove correct.

Let's make our function a little more complicated<click>



Still very simple, this code is easy to understand at a glance. It doesn't have a great name—we'll get to that—but it does what the specification says. Let's add a little more complexity <click>





This function is still simple; is it correct? We introduced a precondition. What is it?

What if another thread is readying `x` when we update it? That would be a data race. There is an implicit precondition here <click>



This precondition cannot be tested or verified by `a()`. The client must ensure it. By introducing indirection (passing the argument by reference), we raise the prospect of _aliasing_ in the interface, having more than one way to access an object. The rest of this talk is about techniques to control aliasing and confine the effect of an operation so it can be reasoned about locally.

We certainly don't want to write preconditions like this with every function. So, instead, we're going to develop a set of general preconditions that must be upheld for all operations unless otherwise specified.



And now we can remove our precondition.



We don't normally pass an `int` by reference; we pass an object by reference as an optimization to avoid unnecessary copies. But for types where the cost of taking the reference is as much as passing the value, we pass the value. By convention, arithmetic types and pointers are passed by value. In generic code, iterators and invocable (function objects) are passed by value because they are likely small and trivial.



For a given instance, either an action or transformation may have a more efficient implementation. All other things being equal prefer transformations.

The transformation form here is taking the argument by value, but we need to say a little more about passing arguments <click>

Argument Passing		
 let arguments 		
• const T&		
 inout arguments 		
• T&		
 sink arguments 		
 T&&, use a constraint when T is deduced 	1	
<pre>template <class t=""> void f(T&&) requires std::is_rvalue_reference_v<t&&>;</t&&></class></pre>		
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We want the sink to be a non_const rvalue reference, I leave it as an exercise to write is_sink_v constraint. Unfortunately, I don't see a way to do it as a concept where you could say `auto sink a`

template <class T>

```
inline constexpr bool is_sink_v{std::is_const_v<std::remove_reference_t<T>> && std::is_rvalue_reference_v<T>};
```



We want each of these to behave like the corresponding transformation form was used. We already found we cannot alias the value across threads. Are there other preconditions?

sink arguments are used when the argument is escaped - either stored or returned, possibly with modification.

Pass by value is a let argument from the caller side, and consumable (sink) by the implementor. For small (<= sizeof(void*)) basic types (move and copy are equivalent) pass by value is used.



Will this print `4`, or `2`, or something else? We can see from the implementation that the answer is `4`. This is breaking the client contract that the second argument is not modified. The postconditions conflict - a contradiction. But maybe this is what we "expected." But what if offset was implemented this way <click>

A more complex action

```
// Offsets the value of x by n
void offset(int& x, const int& n) {
    x += n;
}
    What if this is called as:
    int x{2};
    offset(x, x);
    println("{}", x);
```

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4
```



the print statement is never reached. Because of the aliasing between arguments, where one is under mutation, the implementation cannot satisfy either postcondition.

This may seem like a contrived example. But here is a real one <click>

A more complex action

```
// Offsets the value of x by n
void offset(int& x, const int& n) {
   for (int i = 0; i != n; ++x);
}
   What will this print?
   int x{2};
   offset(x, x);
   println("{}", x);
```



What will this print... It depends on the implementation but here is one answer<click>

Why? After the code removes the first element matching a[0] (0), a[0] holds a 1, so the remaining 1 is removed, leaving the trailing 0. According to the standard, the answer is unspecified.

If arguments are aliased with mutation, local reasoning is broken for both the client and implementor.

A more complex action		
vector a{ 0, 1, 1, 0 };		
erase(a, a[0]);		
<pre>println("{}", a);</pre>		
What will this print?		
[1, 0]		
		– https://godbolt.org/z/hP1dsTPsa
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These preconditions appear in various forms in several [modern? safe?] languages



In Swift, this is known as "The Law of Exclusivity", a term coined by John McCall.



In Rust, the borrow checker enforces this restriction. C++ does not have such a restriction. We must rely on conventions and diligence.



We haven't talked about function results yet. So let's start our discussion of projections there...



Let's go back to an early simple function. Here, we are returning a new value. Would it ever make sense to return a reference from a function?



vector back is an example of returning a reference. There are many examples in the standard library, all assignment operators, indexing, and the min and max algorithms (by const reference, unfortunately)...

When we return a reference to a _part_ of something (and the whole is a part of the whole), we refer to it as a _projection_.



The fact that projection qualifiers mirror argument qualifiers is not a coincidence -By reference arguments _are_ projections.

Projection Qualifiers			
Returning consumable projections are uncommon			
 Usually return by-value is used but consumables may be more efficient when extracting a value from an rvalue: 			
T&& extract() &&;			
 Mutable projections may also be consumed but require an additional operation to restore invariants on the owning object. i.e. 			
auto e{std::move(a.back());} a.pop_back(); // erase the moved-from object			
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Projection Validity
 A projection is invalidated when: The object they are projected from is modified other than through a projection
<pre>vector a{0}; int& p{a[0]}; // p is a projection a.push_back(1); // p is invalidated</pre>
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These are the general rules, a specific operation my provide stronger guarantees. It is the client responsibility to only pass valid projections to an operation



These are the general rules, a specific operation my provide stronger guarantees. Unless otherwise specified.

Projection Validity		
 A projection is invalidated when: The object they are projected from is modian non-overlapping projection vector a{0, 1, 2, 3}; const e& = a.back(); a.clear(); // invalidates e 	fied other than through the projection	n or another
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 A projection is invalidated when: 	
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<pre>vector a{0, 1, 2, 3}; const e& = a.back(); a.clear(); // invalidates e</pre>	<pre>vector a{0, 1, 2, 3}; const e& = a.back(); a[2] = 42; // e is not invalidated</pre>
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 The lifetime of the object they are projected from ends 		
int& p{vector{0}[0]}; // p is i	nvalidated right after creation	on!
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Copy has specific rules about overlapping ranges and copying to the left - as with our other rules there is an "unless otherwise specified" clause. If you rely on "otherwise specified" behavior - document it with a link the relevant documentation.

Projecting Multiple Values

- Iterator pairs, views, and spans project a collection of values from an object
- They follow the same rules as reference projections

vector a{3, 2, 1, 0}; copy(begin(a), begin(a) + 2, begin(a) + 1); // Invalid - overlapping

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Projecting Multiple Values

- Iterator pairs, views, and spans project a collection of values from an object
- They follow the same rules as reference projections

vector a{3, 2, 1, 0}; copy(begin(a), begin(a) + 2, begin(a) + 1); // Invalid - overlapping

```
vector a{3, 2, 1, 0};
copy(begin(a), begin(a) + 2, begin(a) + 2); // OK - not overlapping
```

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This seems like a ridiculous question - of course, the type is a shared widget pointer!

It could be a let or sink argument since it is pass by-value...

Do you think `f` is just operating on the pointer?

Maybe the type of the argument is the widget. And the widget is mutable so this could be an inout widget argument. It could be a nullptr, so it could be an optional inout widget argument!

f has exclusive access to the pointer (pass by-value). Am I confident f has exclusive mutable access to the widget for the duration of the call? Maybe the widget contains other child widgets held as shared pointers.

Why is the extent important?



void f(shared_ptr<widget> p);

• What is the <i>type</i> of the argument for f ()	?	
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Quick refresher on equality -





- Equational reasoning explains how code works and is a component part of larger proofs.
- To know if two values are equal, we need to know the *extent* of the values.

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Equality also connects to move...

Recall the duality between transformations and actions -



This is an example of equational reasoning. Projections are a proxy for a value, with rules the govern the validity of the proxy.



a is a composite object with 4 integer part b is a composite object with two named parts

disjointness - logically disjoint under mutation. immutable and copy-on-write objects may share storage.

Pointers, shared, unique or otherwise, witness a relationship. Which may, or may not, be a whole-part relationship. In an interface, their meaning is ambiguous and they are best avoided. Alone, they are disconnected from any whole.

Composite Objects and Whole-	-Part Relationships	
 A composite object is made up of other objects, called its parts. The whole-part relationship satisfies the four properties of connectedness, noncircularity, disjointness, and ownership 		
vector a{ 0, 1, 2, 3 };		
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Composite Objects and Whole-Part Relationships

- A composite object is made up of other objects, called its parts.
- The whole-part relationship satisfies the four properties of *connectedness*, *noncircularity*, *disjointness*, and *ownership*

```
vector a{ 0, 1, 2, 3 };
```

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```
struct {
   string name{ "John" };
   int id{0}
} b;
```

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I prefer the sink/return-by-value form over mutation. It also allows for more concise code

But we need to talk a little about non-whole part relationships







Relationships exist all over in the code - the main challenge in programming isn't in functions or classes, but in finding and managing the essential relationships.



I'm emphasizing index - sometimes memory-safe or functional languages are described as solving the problems with pointers. They only solve the memory-safety problems, not correctness, and surprisingly (in the case of functional languages) not the problem of local reasoning

If I have an index to the largest element of an array, and I change the element such that it is no longer the largest, my index, as a witness to the relationship, is invalid.

This is where we get spooky action at a distance



These are class invariants

"explicitly severed" such as by nulling the pointer, using an optional, or other value such as a negative index to represent severed.

Linked list example. Splicing doesn't entangle lists. A container view of the world.



In the 80s and into the 90s, there was a view that you could build systems at scale consisting of networks of objects. The entire OOP ethos was built around this idea. The view was always flawed but persists in reference-semantic languages.



We only have local knowledge of each object, which follows a set of rules.



CALM

"Consistency As Logical Monotonicity (CALM). A program has a consistent, coordination-free distributed implementation if and only if it is monotonic." – <u>Keeping CALM: WhenDistributed Consistency is Easy</u>

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Immutable globals are okay. They don't require any additional coordination. Registries with tomb-stoning are another example. Delete is not a monotonic operation.

In 2008 I gave a Google tech talk on a possible future of software development. I conjectured that _at_ some scale we require coordination free computation. That scale is determined by the latency required for coordination. Significant progress has been made in recent years in this space, but there are still many open issues.



Summary

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- Interfaces should make the scope of the operation clear
- Projections provide an efficient way to achieve value semantics and manipulate parts

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- It is the client's responsibility to uphold the Law of Exclusivity
 - Don't pass projections that overlap an inout argument projection
- Implementors provide types with value semantics
- Confine extrinsic relationships between parts within a class

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